Matched filters for coalescing binaries detection on massively parallel computers

E. Calzavarini [a,1], L. Sartori [b], F. Schifano [b], R. Tripiccione [a],
A. Viceré [c]

[a]*Physics Department, Università di Ferrara and
INFN, Sezione di Ferrara I-44100, Ferrara, Italy*

[b] *INFN, Sezione di Pisa, I-56010 S.Piero a Grado (PI), Italy*

[c]*Physics Department, Università di Urbino I-61029 Urbino, Italy*

Abstract

In this paper we discuss some computational problems associated to matched filtering of experimental signals from gravitational wave interferometric detectors in a parallel-processing environment. We then specialize our discussion to the use of the APEmille and apeNEXT processors for this task. Finally, we accurately estimate the performance of an APEmille system on a computational load appropriate for the LIGO and VIRGO experiments, and extrapolate our results to apeNEXT.

Key words: GW interferometric detectors; coalescing binaries; parallel computing

1 Introduction

Several earth-based interferometric experiments for the detection of gravitational waves (GW) are currently under development, and expected to reach the data-taking stage in the near future. On a longer time scale, space-based experiments are foreseen [1]. These experiments will search, among other, for GW generated by inspiralling compact binary-star systems.

The expected functional form of the signal produced by a coalescing system is known to good approximation [2], so matched filtering is an effective strategy to extract GW signals from the noise background. Matched filtering is

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[1] *Corresponding author:* calzavar@fe.infn.it ; Dipartimento di Fisica, via Paradiso 12, I-44100 Ferrara, Italy.

basically obtained by projecting the experimental output (signal plus noise) onto the expected theoretical signal, and is best done in Fourier space, using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) techniques (see later for more details). The functional form of the expected signal depends however on the physical parameters (e.g., masses, angular momenta, eccentricity) of the inspiralling system. It is necessary to match the experimental output to a set of expected signals (so-called templates) corresponding to points in the parameter space that cover the physical region of interest and are close enough (under some appropriate metric) to ensure sufficient overlap with any expected GW event.

The number of needed templates for e.g. the VIRGO experiment is of order of $10^5 \cdots 10^6$, so the corresponding computational cost is huge by current standards. A nice requirement is the possibility of real-time analysis of the experimental data, which means that the available computational power is enough to process experimental data at the rate at which they are produced, so a prompt "trigger" of a GW event is possible [3].

Matched filtering to a (large) set of templates is an obvious candidate for parallel processing of the simplest form, e.g., data farming with all elements of the farm performing the same computation (Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD) processing). Indeed, the experimental data stream is sent to all processors in the farm, each element performing the matching procedures for a subset of the physical templates.

Massively parallel specialized SPMD architectures, with peak processing power of the order of 1 Tflops have been developed by several groups to fulfill the computational requirements of Lattice Gauge Theories (LGT) [4]. In this paper we want to analyze the performance of one such system (the APEmille system [5]) for matched filtering of GW signals.

This paper is not a proposal to use APE-like systems in an actual experimental (the relative merits of different computer systems in a large experiment have so many facets that they can only be assessed by those directly working on it). Rather, the potential usefulness of our work lies in the following: given the fast pace of development in the computer industry, an experiment will try to delay the commissioning of a production system to as late a point in time as possible, since huge gains in price and/or price/performance can be expected. This means that very large computing capabilities will not be available for much needed early tests and simulations. APE systems might provide an answer to this problem.

The focus of this paper is the measurement of the performance of APE systems for matched filtering. Some parts of the paper have however a more general scope and refer to general parallelization criteria for the problem at hand.

This paper is structured as follows: Section 2 briefly reviews the formalism

of matched filtering. Section 3 evaluates the associated computational cost in general terms and discusses some strategies to minimize this quantity. Section 4 discusses the features of the APE systems relevant for the problem, while section 5 presents a procedure for allocation of templates to processors suitable for APE and general enough to adapt to other computer systems. Section 6 presents the result of actual performance measurements made on APE, while section 7 contains our concluding remarks.

2   Formalism

In this section we briefly summarize the mathematical formalism recently developed to analyze matched filtering of GW signals from coalescing binaries. We closely follow the notation presented in [8].

We call $h(t)$ the interferometer output, which is the sum of the signal $s(t)$ and the noise $n(t)$, while $u(t)$ is a template. $n(t)$ is characterized by its one-sided spectral density:

$$E[\tilde{n}(f_1)\,\tilde{n}^*(f_2)] = \frac{1}{2}\,\delta(f_1 - f_2)\,S_n(|f_1|) \tag{1}$$

where $E[\dots]$ means ensemble expectation value, tilde ($\sim$) stands for Fourier transformed functions and asterisk ($*$) for complex conjugation.

For the sake of definiteness, we consider in the following templates computed to second post-Newtonian expansion. They depend, in principle, on several parameters: the coalescing phase ϕ_c and coalescing time t_c, and the parameters corresponding to the physical characteristics of the system, called intrinsic parameters and globally referred to by the vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. A template is precisely identified by $u(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}, \phi_c, t_c)$. It is believed that the most relevant intrinsic parameters are the masses of the binary systems, so as a first approximation it is usual to neglect all intrinsic parameters except masses. In this approximation, $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is a vector of two components.

In a matched filter the signal to noise ratio (SNR) is usually defined by

$$\frac{S}{N} \equiv \frac{\langle h, u \rangle}{\mathrm{rms}\langle n, u \rangle} \tag{2}$$

where $\langle \dots \rangle$ is a particular inner product defined as:

$$\langle h, u \rangle \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\tilde{h}^*(f) \cdot \tilde{u}(f)}{S_n(f)}\, df \tag{3}$$

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It can be shown that $\text{rms}\langle n, u\rangle = (\langle u, u\rangle)^{1/2}$, so (2) simplify to $S/N = \langle h, u\rangle$, if normalized templates are used [6].

Filtering a signal means to look for local maxima of the signal to noise ratio, in terms of its continuous parameters. The maximization over the phase ϕ_c can be done analytically (it can be seen that the maximum value is obtained computing two inner product as in (3) on two real templates with opposite phases and then summing their square values [10]). Maximization over t_c instead is achieved at low computational cost calculating the cross correlations by the FFT algorithm. Maximizations over the intrinsic parameters are not possible analytically. For this reason the normal procedure consists in a discretizations of templates in the space of the intrinsic parameters.

The obvious question concerns the number of templates needed to cover the whole parameter space. A differential geometrical approach has been developed recently [7]. One introduces a new function, the *match* $M(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2)$, which is the product of two templates with different intrinsic parameters, where a maximization is assumed over t_c and ϕ_c:

$$M(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2) \equiv \max_{\Delta\phi_c, \Delta t_c} \langle u(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \phi_c + \Delta\phi_c, t_c + \Delta t_c), u(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2, \phi_c, t_c)\rangle \qquad (4)$$

The match between two templates with near equal parameters may be Taylor expanded

$$M(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta} + \Delta\boldsymbol{\theta}) \simeq 1 + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\partial^2 M(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\omega})}{\partial\omega^i\, \partial\omega^j}\right)_{\omega^k=\theta^k} \Delta\theta^i \Delta\theta^j \qquad (5)$$

suggesting the definition of a metric

$$g_{ij}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \equiv -\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\partial^2 M(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\omega})}{\partial\omega^i\, \partial\omega^j}\right)_{\omega^k=\theta^k} \qquad (6)$$

$$M(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta} + \Delta\boldsymbol{\theta}) \simeq 1 - g_{ij}\, \Delta\theta^i \Delta\theta^j \qquad (7)$$

In the limit of close template spacing we have an analytical function able to measure the distance between templates in the intrinsic parameter space. The metric $g_{ij}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ depends on the intrinsic parameters so the real volume covered by a template varies locally. This effect can be reduced writing the templates in terms of some new variables for which the metric is more regular. One

suitable choice is the following:

$$\theta_1 = \frac{5}{128} \, (\pi f_0)^{-5/3} \cdot \frac{M^{-2/3}}{\mu} \tag{8}$$

$$\theta_2 = \frac{1}{4} \, \pi^{1/3} f_0^{-5/3} \cdot \frac{M^{1/3}}{\mu} \tag{9}$$

where M is the total mass of the binary system, μ the reduced mass, and f_0 an arbitrary frequency. This change of variables makes the metric tensor components constant at the first post-Newtonian order, so only small $\boldsymbol{\theta}$-dependent contributions are present at the second order approximation.

It is now possible to simply estimate the total number of templates necessary to recover the signal at a given level of accuracy. We calculate the volume covered by a single template in the parameter space in term of a minimal value for the match, the so called *minimal match MM* which states a minimal requirement on signal recovering capabilities. For example, if we simply use a face centered hyper-cubic lattice, we can write the maximum covering volume with:

$$\Delta V = \left(2\sqrt{\frac{(1-MM)}{D}}\right)^D \tag{10}$$

where D is the dimension of the parameter space (2 in our example).

An approximate estimation of the total template number, applicable when N is very large [8], is given taking the ratio between the total volume of the physically relevant parameter space and the volume covered by a template placed in the center of a lattice tile

$$N(MM) = \frac{\int d^N\theta \, \sqrt{\det g}}{\Delta V} \tag{11}$$

Using (11) we estimate that in the range from 0.25 to 10. solar masses the total template number is roughly $3.8 \cdot 10^4$ for LIGO and $1.1 \cdot 10^6$ for VIRGO (see Section 5 for the additional assumptions involved in this calculation).

A last remark we want to make is that the minimal match requirement also determines a threshold value for the signal (and templates) sampling frequency. This frequency can be simply estimated and will be take into account later on in our computational estimates.

3 General Strategy

In this section we present some observations about a general strategy to compute correlations. Here we consider an *ideal* case in which most computer-related issues are neglected. We also limit our treatment only to the *stored templates strategy*, where templates are pre-calculated, then Fourier transformed and prepared to be processed and finally stored in memory. This ideal case is not unrealistic, given the pace at which actual memory sizes increase in real computers. The quantity to be evaluated on every template is given by

$$C(t) = \left| \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \tilde{u}^*(f) \cdot \tilde{s}(f) \; e^{-i2\pi ft} \; df \right| \; , \; \tilde{u}(f) = \frac{\tilde{h}(f)}{S_n(f)} \tag{12}$$

where $\tilde{h}(f)$ is the Fourier transform of a complex template $h(t)$.

At present the best way of compute $C(t)$ uses a FFT algorithm, reducing the number of needed operations from n^2 to $n \log_2 n$. The FFT algorithm assumes input periodicity, while in our case signal and templates are not repeated data. The usual trick to overcome this problem [9] consists in *padding* with a certain number of zeros the tail of the templates to be processed. Assume that the template has n_T points. We pad it so its total length become n_P, and then compute the correlation by using the padded template and n_P signal points. The resulting correlations are only valid in their first $n_P - n_T$ points, all remaining points being affected by the periodicity assumption implied in the FFT technique. We define padding-ratio the quantity $R_{pad} = n_P/n_T$. The result obtained in this way covers a time-period of length $(n_P - n_T)/f_s$, where f_s is the sampling frequency of the experimental signal. The last n_T data-points will have to be re-analyzed in a successive analysis.

The computing power necessary for an on-line analysis of templates of given n_T and n_P (floating point operations per second) is given by:

$$C_p = \frac{f_s}{n_P - n_T} \cdot \left(A \cdot n_P \log_2(n_P) + B \cdot n_P \right) \tag{13}$$

A and B are constants, usually of the same order, depending on the specific algorithm used. In this paper we use a simple-minded FFT algorithm for power of two length vectors that involves $A = 5$ and $B = 12$ for the whole analysis. Although more general and efficient algorithms exist, our choice does not influences strongly the following observations and final results.

One interesting question concerns the optimal padding that minimizes computing requirements. If one disregards the fact that (13) holds only for n_P values that are powers of 2, the answer is given by fig.1, where the minimum in n_P of eq. 14 is plotted as a function of n_T, for $f_s = 1kHz$. The behavior is very close to a logarithmic function in n_T, so computing costs depend very weakly on n_T. This result is obtained for an optimal choice of n_P, as discussed
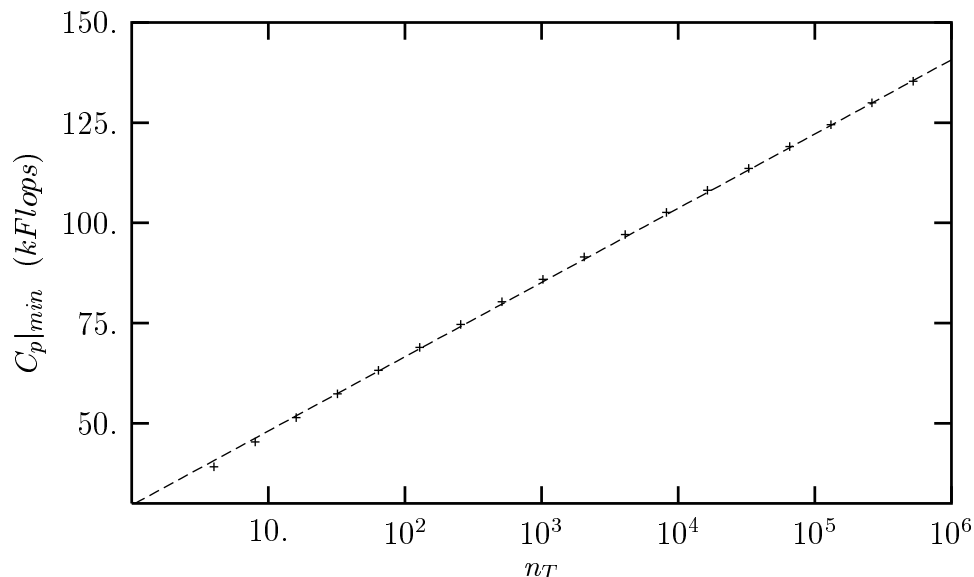

Fig. 1. Estimate of the computing power (floating point operations per second *Flops*), versus template length n_T for an optimal choice of n_P. We set $A = 5$ e $B = 12$ and $f_s = 1kHz$ (see Eq. 13)

above. As shown in fig.2, the optimal value for n_P grows with n_T, implying in principle very large memory requests. In practice however (see again fig.2) a value of $n_P/n_T \simeq 2 \cdots 4$ is very close to the optimal case for reasonable values of n_T. This finally means that deviations from the optimal padding length do not produce drastic consequences on the computing power needed to perform the analysis, and that n_p can be easily adjusted to a suitable power of two.

4   Analysis on APEmille

The APE family of massively parallel processor has been developed in order to satisfy the number crunching requirements of Lattice Gauge Theories (LGT)[5]. Machines of the present APE generation (APEmille) are installed at several sites, delivering an overall peak processing power of about 2 Tflops. The largest sites have typically 1000 processing nodes (i.e., 520 Gflops) [12]. Sustained performance on production-grade LGT codes is about 45 % of peak performance. A new APE generation (APEnext) is under development, and expected to reach the physics-production stage in early 2004. $O(10Tflops)$
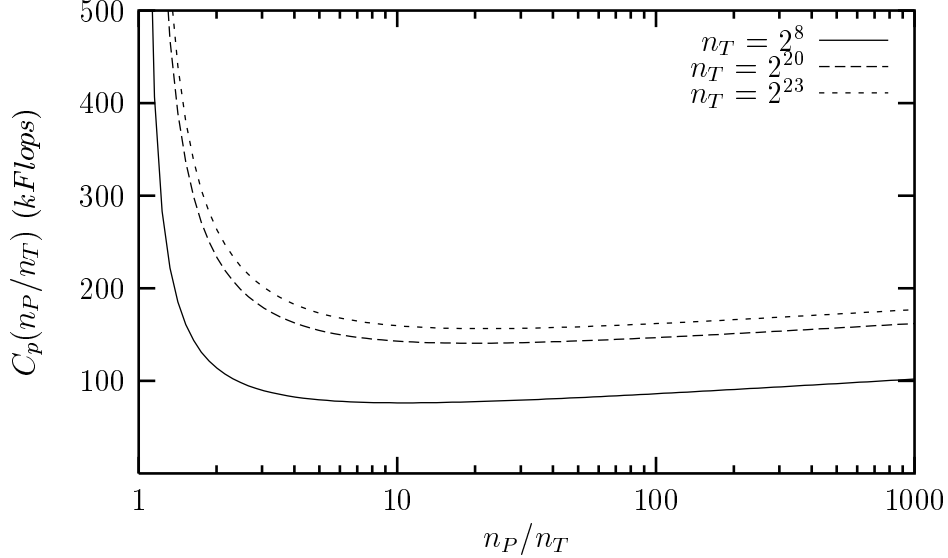
Fig. 2. Computing power in *Flops* versus the padding ratio n_P/n_T, for three typical template lengths. We use the same parameters as in the previous figure.

peak performance installations are being considered.

APEmille systems are based on a building block containing 8 processing nodes (processor and memory) running in Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) mode. Each processor is optimized for floating point arithmetics and has a peak performance of 500 MFlops in IEEE single precision mode. The processors are logically assembled as the sites of a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ mesh, with data links connecting the edges. This arrangement is called a "cluster" or a "Cube".

Large APEmille systems are based on a larger 3-dimensional mesh of processor, based on replicas of the above-described building block. The resulting mesh has a full set of first neighbor communication links. In a typical LGT application the whole system works in lock-step mode as a single SIMD system. More important for the present application, each Cube is able to operate independently, running its own program under the control of a Linux-based personal-computer acting as a host. There is one host machine every 4 Cubes. A set of up to 32 Cubes (i.e., 256 nodes) and the corresponding 8 host machines is a fully independent unit housed in a standard-size mechanical enclosure. Each Cube has access to networked disks with a bandwidth of about 4 MByte/sec. In some APEmille installations, disks have been mounted directly on the host PCs. In this case, bandwidth increases approximately by a factor 4.

The next generation APE system (apeNEXT) is, for the purposes of the present discussion, just a faster version of the same architecture. The only (welcome) architectural difference is the fact that the basic logical building block (capable of independent operation) is now just one processing node.

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A large APEmille system can be seen as a large farm of processors, whose basic element is a SIMD machine of dimension 8. A better way to look at the SIMD cluster in our case follows the paradigm of vector computing: the SIMD cluster applies the input signal to a vector of 8 templates and produces a vector of 8 correlations. In a variation of the same method, the same template could be present on all nodes of the SIMD cluster, and correlations at 8 staggered time points could be computed. Since the number of correlations is of the order of $10^5 \cdots 10^6$, each element of a large farm (say 10^3 SIMD clusters) takes responsibility for several hundreds or thousands of templates. This is good news, since APE processors can exploit vector processing within the node to reach high efficiency (we just recall here for reader interested in architectural details that vector processing effectively helps to hide memory access latencies).

We have written an APE code performing all the steps needed for matched filtering on a pre-calculated (and pre-FFT transformed) set (vector) of k templates each of length n, and measured its performance on an APE cluster. An analysis of the details of the APEmille processor suggest to model the computation time $T_C(n, k)$ as

$$T_C(n, k) = f(n) \cdot g(k) \cdot k \tag{14}$$

$f(n)$ is related to the complexity of the computation, that we model as $c_1 n \cdot \log_2(n) + c_2 n + c_3$, following Eq.13 and introducing one more parameter (c_3) covering machine effects. $g(k)$ is a measure of the processor efficiency as a function of the vector length k, that we normalize to $g(1) = 1$. Taking into account that the computation is memory-bandwidth limited (as opposed to processing-power limited), we adopt the following functional form for $g(k)$:

$$g(k) = c_4/k + c_5 \tag{15}$$

Measured and fitted values for $f(n)$ and $g(k)$ are shown in fig.3 and fig.4 respectively.

APEmille efficiencies are smooth functions of n_P and k. A rather good value of $\simeq 20\%$, including all computational overheads, is possible when large sets of templates ($k \geq 20$) are used.
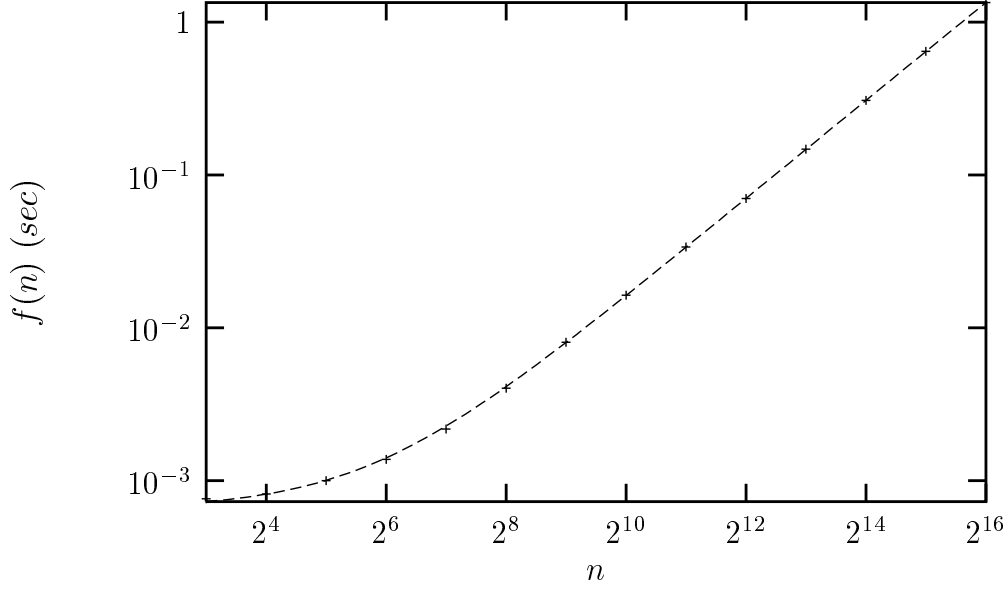
Fig. 3. Analysis time as a function of template length $T_C(n, 1) = f(n)$. Measured data points are fitted to the functional form of 14, with $c_1 = 8.6 \cdot 10^{-7} sec$, $c_2 = 6.6 \cdot 10^{-6} sec$ and $c_3 = 6.6 \cdot 10^{-4} sec$.
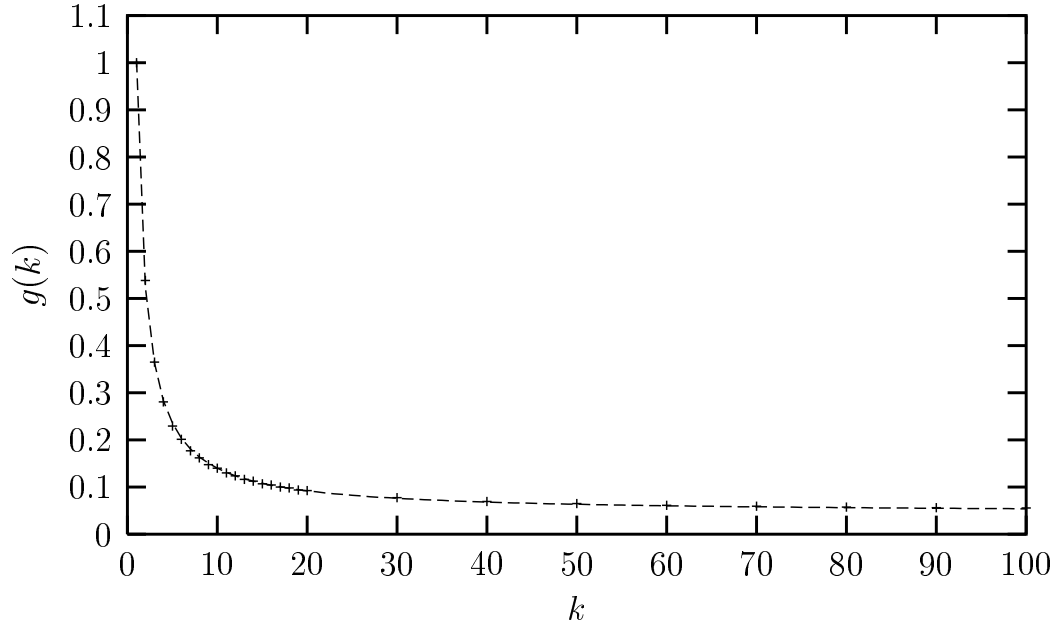

Fig. 4. Normalized processor efficiency $g(k)$ as a function of the vector length k. Measured points are fitted to (15).

5 Allocation criteria and processor numbers

A general templates allocation strategy on real computers has to take into account the limited size in memory and the available computing power available. Here we present some quantitative aspects of memory and CPU usage

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involved in our analysis, then we give our allocation criteria for the optimal template number manageable by a single processor.

This discussion focuses on criteria that are appropriate for the APE family of processors. The focus is to exploit vectorization as much as possible and to find ways to reduce input-output bandwidth requirements, so our discussion can be applied to a larger class of processors.

We start from memory. Each processor has k stored templates of similar length n_T. (In the APEmille case, the term processor must be understood to refer to the basic cluster of 8 processing element).

Vector processing of all the templates requires that they are all padded to the same n_P, so we need k arrays of n_P complex words, and matching space for the final correlation results.

There are two basic memory allocation strategies: we may assign different sets of k templates to each element in a basic 8 processor cluster, and have all of them compute the corresponding correlations for the same time stretch $(n_P - n_T)/f_s$, so each cluster computes $8k$ correlations. Alternatively, we may assign the same set of templates to all processing elements and have each of them compute correlations for different time intervals. With this choice k correlations are computed for a longer time stretch $8(n_P - n_T)/f_s$. The best choice between these two nearly equivalent cases is based on bandwidth constraints. In APEmille, data items reaching the cluster can be delivered to just one element, or broadcast to all of them. In the latter case, bandwidth is effectively multiplied by a large factor ($\times 8$), so there is an advantage if large data blocks must be broadcast to the complete cluster. We will use quantitatively these observations later on in this section.

We now consider processing power. The real-time requirement stipulates that each processor cluster completes processing all its templates within an elapsed time $(n_P - n_T)/f_s$ (or $8(n_P - n_T)/f_s$). As shown later on, for several realistic templates sizes, the processing time $T(n_P, k)$ is much shorter that the elapsed time for the k value allowed by memory constraints. We may therefore try to use the same cluster for a different set of templates. This may become inefficient since loading a large data base (the new set of templates) may be a lengthy procedure. This cost may be reduced by using the same templates several times (corresponding to longer elapsed times) before loading a new set of templates.

We disregard the overhead associated to the output of the computer correlations , that can be made very small taking into account the Gaussian character of the noise (e.g. a 3σ-cut could reduce the number of the output correlations to the order of 1%). More interestingly a cross correlation among closely spaced templates could be performed on line packing more densely the avail-

able information.

We would like to optimize among these conflicting requirements. Let us consider the total compute time both for different sets of templates (case 1) or the same set of templates (case 2) on each cluster element. We have

- Case 1: We want to compute r sets of $8k$ correlations each on templates of length n_P, corresponding to the same time interval. We compute correlations on l adjoining time intervals before switching to a new set of templates. The computation time can be modeled as

$$8rkn_P/B + n_Pl/B + lrT_c(n_P, k) \tag{16}$$

where B is the cluster input-output bandwidth (measured in words per unit time). The first term in (16) is the time required to load the templates on all processors, the second term is the time needed to broadcast n_P signal points to all cluster elements while the third term refers to the actual computation, to be performed lr times. Templates, correlations and input data must fit inside the memory, implying that $(2k + l)n_P \leq M_T$, where M_T is the available memory on each node (measured in units of complex words). Also, the computation must complete in a time interval $l(n_P - n_T)/f_s$. In (16) we assume that all data-points are loaded once. This reduces input-output time but reserves a large fraction of memory space to data-points (as opposed to templates). Alternatively (case 1b), we may load a smaller set of data-points every time we start a new computation. The corresponding compute time becomes

$$8rkn_P/B + n_Prl/B + lrT_c(n_P, k) \tag{17}$$

while the memory constraint changes to $(2k + 1)n_P \leq M_T$. For any physical template of length n_T, we must maximize $8rk$ in terms of r, k, l and n_P satisfying all constraints.

- Case 2: The procedure discussed above can be applied also in this case. The corresponding processing time is given by

$$rkn_P/B + 8n_Pl/B + lrT_c(n_P, k) \tag{18}$$

This equation differs from (16) since we now broadcast templates while we load different data-points to each processing elements. The memory constraint is the same as in Case 1, while the maximum allowed processing time is $8l(n_P - n_T)/f_s$. Case 2b (multiple data loads) is also easily computed as

$$rkn_P/B + 8n_Prl/B + lrT_c(n_P, k) \tag{19}$$

In case 2, we are interested in optimizing rk in terms of the same parameters as in the previous case.

There is one free parameter in the optimization process (l). If we increase l we reduce the relative cost associated with template loading, but increase the latency associated to the computation. We arbitrarily decide to keep l small enough so the latency for any n_T is not longer that a fixed amount of time T_W. We choose T_W as the time length of the longest template contained in the set. This choice may be useful also for data-organization purposes: every T_W time interval all correlations corresponding to templates of all lengths are made available. The result of the optimization process are given in Table 1 for APEmille and Table 2 for apeNEXT. Results depend weakly on the allocation procedure discussed above, and are largely dominated by the sustained processing power. Bandwidth limitations are neatly dealt with: if we increase the available bandwidth by a factor four (e.g., using local disks) the number of templates handled by each cluster increases by less than 10%. With our choice of parameters Case 1b is the preferred one for almost all template lengths.

n_T	Case 1	Case 1b	Case 2	Case 2b
2^8	4824	**4955**	4937	4854
2^9	4344	**4549**	4535	4382
2^{10}	3720	**4016**	4003	3775
2^{11}	3177	**3474**	3458	3252
2^{12}	2511	**2904**	2885	2606
2^{13}	1792	**2226**	2197	1893
2^{14}	1143	**1558**	1526	1315
2^{15}	657	**1091**	1057	865
2^{16}	349	**679**	644	510
2^{17}	180	**378**	329	274
2^{18}	-	191	**201**	135
2^{19}	-	**86**	-	-

Table 1
Number of templates handled by each APEmille processor cluster, as a function of the template length n_T. Parameters are (see the text for definitions) $f_s = 2048 Hz$, $B = 5 \cdot 10^5 W_c/sec$, $T_W = 1024 sec$. Numbers in bold flag the best case , while $-$ mark cases where allocation can not be performed due to memory limits.

We remark that processing time has been directly measured on APEmille, while apeNEXT values are extrapolations obtained by appropriately re-scaling the basic machine parameters, such as memory size, I/O bandwidth, and processor frequency.

n_T	Case 1	Case 1b	Case 2	Case 2b
2^8	15631	**15765**	15750	15704
2^9	14599	**14834**	14815	14728
2^{10}	13626	**13852**	13832	13752
2^{11}	12455	**12844**	12812	12673
2^{12}	10969	**11597**	11546	11321
2^{13}	9401	**9992**	9917	9735
2^{14}	7782	**8614**	8528	8264
2^{15}	5881	**6907**	6790	6466
2^{16}	3979	**4991**	4852	4540
2^{17}	2409	**3418**	3280	3102
2^{18}	1282	**2205**	2107	1944
2^{19}	673	**1259**	1189	1087
2^{20}	-	641	**657**	546
2^{21}	-	**285**	-	-

Table 2
Same as 1, extrapolated to apeNEXT. We re-scale processing power per node by a factor 3 and bandwidth by a factor 4. Memory increases by a factor 4 and $T_W = 4096 sec.$.

6 Actual estimates on processors numbers

We present here an accurate calculation of the total computational cost, and thus of the total processors number, required in order to analyze systems of coalescing binaries whose masses are in a certain range.

The main point of this calculation is the production, given a definite mass range, of a suitable set of templates covering the corresponding parameter space. We remark that for our purposes (i.e. an estimation of the computational cost) we only need a realistic template distribution in the parameter space and not a precise covering procedure for placing all the templates. Therefore we will adopt a simplified placing algorithm based on a weighted random

generation method. It is also important to note that the number of templates is very sensible to the shape of the experimental noise spectrum.

In our template distribution strategy we adopt the regular metric g_{ij} obtained using the variables defined in (8),(9). We envisage a square lattice on the θ_1, θ_2 parameter space whose links $\Delta\theta$ are set to $\Delta\theta = (\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sqrt{\det g})^{-1/2}$, where minimization is on the domain $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ corresponding to the physical parameters we are interested in. Under these assumptions the surface corresponding to a square lattice in the θ_1, θ_2 space can be approximated with $S(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sqrt{\det g} \cdot (\Delta\theta)^2$, where $\sqrt{\det g}$ is the value calculated in a point at the center of the square. Hence the minimal surface corresponding to a lattice tile is unit. Now we observe that S is proportional to the number of templates needed in that square region of the parameter space, and that it is roughly equal to the number of templates when divided by ΔV of eq. (10):

$$N(\boldsymbol{\theta})_{\text{per square}} = \sqrt{\det g(\boldsymbol{\theta})} \cdot (\Delta\theta)^2 / \Delta V. \tag{20}$$

Finally we allocate to every square in the lattice a number of templates equal to the rounded value of the previous expression, placing the first one in its center and the others randomly distributed inside the same region.

The noise spectral density $S_n(f)$, an experimentally measured and fitted curve, has different behavior for each experiment. It imposes particular constraints on lower and upper frequency cutoffs and on sampling (or interpolation) frequency. In tab.3 we list the fitting functions relative to the VIRGO and LIGO experiment and corresponding parameters that we use in our calculations.

$S_n(f) = S_p f^{-5} + S_m f^{-1} + S_s \left(1 + (f/f_{knee})^2\right)$					
Experiment	f_{seism}	S_{p}	S_{m}	S_{s}	f_{knee}
LIGO 4K	40	$5.6 \cdot 10^{36}$	$3.9 \cdot 10^{44}$	$1.1 \cdot 10^{46}$	83
VIRGO	4	$9. \cdot 10^{37}$	$4.5 \cdot 10^{43}$	$3.24 \cdot 10^{46}$	500

Table 3
Spectral density noise parameters for LIGO and VIRGO from [11].

The noise curves for LIGO and VIRGO are quite different. While LIGO is very sensible in a narrow frequency interval VIRGO has a lower peak sensibility but is better in a wider range of frequencies.

In tab.3 f_{seism} indicates the so called seismic frequency, i.e. the frequency below which seismic noise is expected to dominate over all other noise sources.

Slightly different definitions for f_{seism} exists, see [8] and [11]. Integration below this limit does not contribute significantly to detectability but is quite expensive in terms of computing power since it increases the number of templates and the template length.

In our calculations, as proposed in [10], in order to reduce computing requirements we adopt a more restrictive frequency range. We fix a lower and an upper frequency bounds f_l and f_u such that the total SNR recovery is at least of 97% (we assume the lower SNR loss of 2% and the upper of 1%). We note that template lengths are very sensible to the lower frequency cut-off, as the duration time, which influences linearly the storage requirements and logarithmically the computation cost, scales as $f_l^{-8/3}$. Our frequency bounds are reported in the first two column of tab.4.

Another point concerns the Minimal Match. We set $MM = 0.97$, which corresponds to an event rate loss of roughly 10% [8].

As discussed at the end of Section 2 the MM level sets not only the density of templates in the parameter space (by ΔV, see (10)) but also the signal (and templates) sampling frequency. This frequency could be very height, so in some cases, memory requirements could be severe.

An alternative analysis strategy consist in sampling the signal at a lower frequency and then obtaining correlations at half-time points by an interpolation. In fact this can be simply achieved performing further anti-Fourier transforms after introducing in the integrals a suitable phase displacement. The number of interpolations obviously multiplies the analysis time.

In our estimate we fix the sampling frequency by $f_s = 2f_u$ (rounding its value to the greatest power of two), so we have $f_s = 1024\ Hz$ for LIGO and $f_s = 2048\ Hz$ for VIRGO. This means (see last column in table4) that we have to compute correlations at intermediate times by interpolations once for VIRGO and once for LIGO experiments.

Experiment	$f_l\ (Hz)$	f_u	SNR recovery	f_{int} at $MM = 0.97$
LIGO 4K	55 (2.0 %)	390 (1.0 %)	97.0%	1203
VIRGO	26 (1.9 %)	900 (1.1 %)	97.0 %	3253

Table 4
Frequency cuts used in our analysis, depending on signal to noise recovery and on Minimal Match.

First, we show in fig.5 the total computational cost to compute the correlation for binary systems whose masses are in a range of m_{min} to 10 solar masses,

as a function of m_{min}, under the assumption of optimal padding. We use the parameters listed in tables 3 and 4. The computational cost roughly follows a (fitted) power-law behavior, with exponent of the order of 2.4. This behavior can be easily guessed, taking advantage of the fact that the computational load of each template depends very weakly on its length, and that the $detg(\theta)$ depends weakly on the θ variables. Under these assumptions the computational cost scales up to log-corrections as the area of the region in θ space corresponding to a given interval of allowed star-masses. The latter can be easily shown by power counting to behave as $m_{min}^{7/3}$.
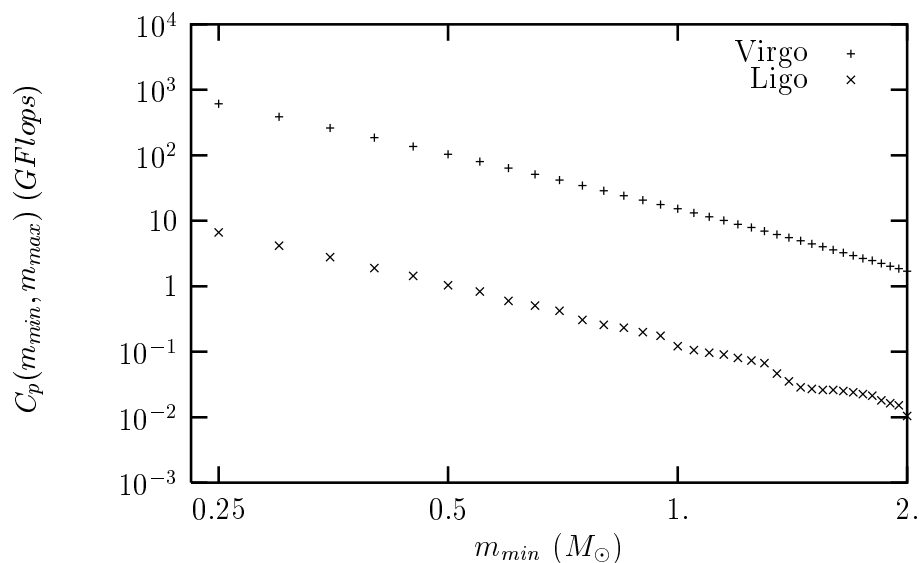

Fig. 5. Behavior of the total computation cost (in GFlops) in the infinite memory availability case versus the lower mass limit, where maximum total mass is 10. $M_\odot$. Here we use VIRGO and LIGO noise spectrum, freq. sampling at 2048 Hz and 1024 Hz respectively and $MM = 97\%$.

The large difference in computational cost between the two experiment, clearly noticeable in fig.5, derives, although in a complex way, from the different noise spectra and from the correspondingly different frequency cuts.

We now specialize the discussion to APE systems. We proceed establishing a mass interval, then generating its template distribution. We "stretch" template lengths to the nearest power of two larger than the actual length (a slightly pessimistic assumption). Finally we divide each group of templates of equal length by the corresponding number of templates handled by one processor cluster (the bold numbers in tab.1 and tab.2), and sum all the resulting quotients. The final result represent the number of APE processor needed to satisfy the real time requirement on the given mass interval.

The computational cost of this matching filter analysis is particularly sensible to the lower mass limit because of the increasing template length and of the

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irregular behavior of the metric tensor g_{ij} in that region of the parameter space. For this reason it is useful to plot the number of processor versus the lower mass limit. The number of nodes (one cluster consist of 8 nodes) for a mass interval from m_{min} to $10 M_{\odot}$ is plotted in fig. 6, where we use noise spectra relevant for LIGO and VIRGO. This complete our analysis.
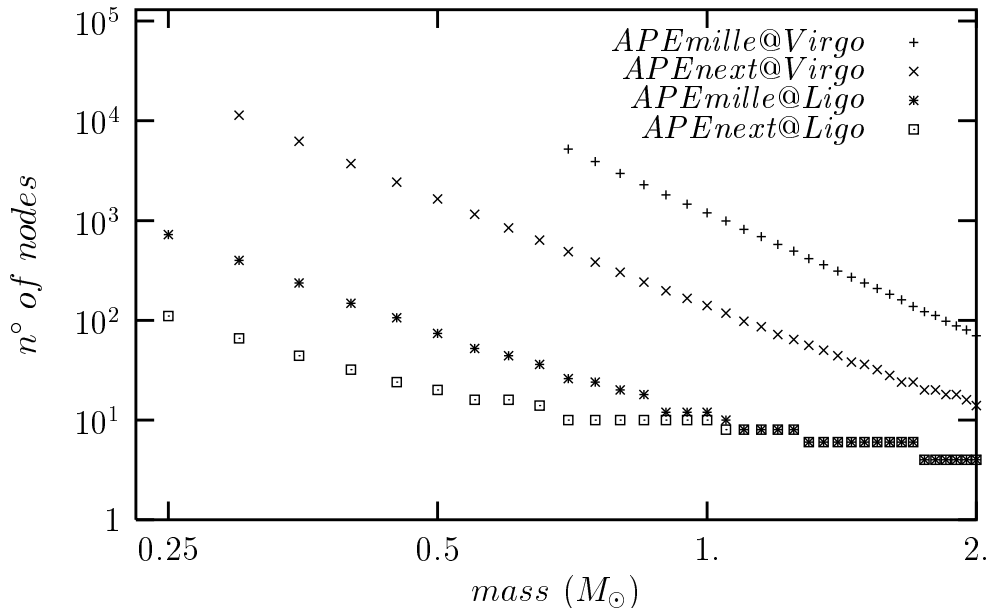

Fig. 6. Number of needed APE nodes versus the lower mass limit, maximum total mass is 10. $M_{\odot}$. Using VIRGO and LIGO noise spectrum, freq. sampling of 2048 Hz and 1024 Hz respectively, $MM = 97\%$.

7 Conclusions

In this paper we have developed a reliable estimate of the computational costs for real-time matched filters for GW search from binary star systems, in a massively parallel processing environment.

We have analyzed some criteria to optimally allocate the processing load to a farm of processors. We have written a code performing the analysis on an APE system and we have measured its performances. Our result is that available (APEmille) systems are able to satisfy the requirements of a real-time analysis of the complexity corresponding to the LIGO experiment in the mass range between 0.25 and 10 $M_{\odot}$.

The VIRGO experiment (with its lower and wider noise curve) has substantially larger computing requirements that cannot be fulfilled by an APEmille system in the same mass range. The new APE generation, expected to be available in early 2004, partially closes this performance gap.

Acknowledgments

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